Second Language Writing

Ken Hyland
City University of Hong Kong



PUBLISHED BY THE PRESS SYNDICATE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE The Pitt Building, Trumpington Street, Cambridge, United Kingdom

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

The Edinburgh Building, Cambridge CB2 2RU, UK 40 West 20th Street, New York, NY 10011-4211, USA

477 Williamstown Road, Port Melbourne, VIC 3207, Australia

Ruiz de Alarcón 13, 28014 Madrid, Spain

Dock House, The Waterfront, Cape Town 8001, South Africa

http://www.cambridge.org

© Ken Hyland 2003

This book is in copyright. Subject to statutory exception and to the provisions of relevant collective licensing agreements, no reproduction of any part may take place without the written permission of Cambridge University Press.

First published 2003

Printed in the United States of America

Typefaces Times New Roman 10.5/12.5 pt. and Helvetica Neue System \LaTeX [TB]

A catalog record for this book is available from the British Library.

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Hyland, Ken.

Second language writing / Ken Hyland.

p. cm. – (Cambridge language education)

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 0-521-82705-1 – ISBN 0-521-53430-5 (pb.)

1. Language and languages – Study and teaching. 2. Rhetoric – Study and teaching.

3. Second language acquisition. I. Title. II. Series. P53.27.H95 2003

808'.042-dc21 2003041957

ISBN 0 521 82705 1 hardback

ISBN 0 521 53430 5 paperback

Contents

Series Editor's Preface xi

Acknowledgments xv

Preface xiii

1	Writing and teaching writing 1
	Guiding concepts in L2 writing teaching 2 Focus on language structures 3 Focus on text functions 6 Focus on creative expression 8 Focus on the writing process 10 Focus on content 14 Focus on genre 18
	Toward a synthesis: Process, purpose, and context 22 Summary and conclusion 27 Discussion questions and activities 28
2	Second language writers 31
	Potential L1 and L2 writer differences 32 Cultural schemata and writing 37 Expectations about teaching and learning 40 Teaching and learning styles 42 Cultural differences in written texts 45 Summary and conclusion 50 Discussion questions and activities 51 Appendix 2.1 Perceptual learning style preference questionnaire 53
3	Syllabus design and lesson planning 54
	Elements of a writing syllabus 55 Analyzing student needs 58

viii Contents

Analyzing the learning context 64
Setting course goals and objectives 67
Developing the syllabus 70
Sample approaches to syllabus organization 73
Planning units of work 76
Planning lessons 79
Summary and conclusion 81
Discussion questions and activities 82
Appendix 3.1 Lesson plan for a writing class 84

4 Texts and materials in the writing class 85

The roles of materials in the writing class 86

Materials and authenticity 92

Selecting and assessing textbooks 95

Modifying writing textbooks 98

Designing materials for the writing class 100

Selecting and locating texts 104

Finding and selecting language and practice materials 107

Summary and conclusion 109

Discussion questions and activities 110

5 Tasks in the L2 writing class 112

Types of writing tasks 113

Task components 116

Graphological tasks 120

Language scaffolding 122

Language scaffolding tasks 124

Composing tasks 130

Sequencing writing tasks: The teaching-writing cycle 136

Summary and conclusion 139

Discussion questions and activities 141

6 New technologies in writing instruction 143

Computers, writing, and language learning 144
Word processing and writing teaching 146
Online writing 150
Internet resources for writing 158
CALL resources for writing 162
Corpora and concordancing 167
Summary and conclusion 172

Discussion questions and activities 172 Appendix 6.1 Some useful websites for writing teachers 174

7 Responding to student writing 177

Teacher written feedback 178
Teacher-student conferencing 192
Peer feedback 198
Summary and conclusion 207
Discussion questions and activities 208
Appendix 7.1 A rubric for the first draft of a university expository essay assignment 210
Appendix 7.2 A peer response sheet 211

8 Assessing student writing 212

Purposes of assessment 213
Validity and reliability issues 215
Designing assessment tasks 220
Approaches to scoring 226
Reducing assessment anxiety 232
Portfolio assessments 233
Summary and conclusion 239
Discussion questions and activities 240
Appendix 8.1 Holistic marking scheme 241
Appendix 8.2 An analytic scoring rubric 243

9 Researching writing and writers 245

Some preliminaries and key steps 246
Generating research: Formulating and focusing a question 247
Designing research 249
Collecting data 252
Analyzing writing data 264
Reporting research 270
Summary and conclusion 272
Discussion questions and activities 272
Appendix 9.1 Some topics and issues in writing research 275

References 277 Index 295

1 Writing and teaching writing

Aims: This chapter will explore some of the ways that writing is viewed and the implications this has for teaching. It outlines the kinds of knowledge and skills involved in writing and develops some general principles for L2 writing teaching through a critical analysis of the main classroom orientations.

As EFL/ESL writing teachers, our main activities involve conceptualizing, planning, and delivering courses. At first sight, this seems to be mainly an application of practical professional knowledge, gained through hands-on classroom experience. To some extent this is true of course, for like any craft, teaching improves with practice. But there is more to it than this. Experience can only be a part of the picture, as our classroom decisions are always informed by our theories and beliefs about what writing is and how people learn to write. Everything we do in the classroom, the methods and materials we adopt, the teaching styles we assume, the tasks we assign, are guided by both practical and theoretical knowledge, and our decisions can be more effective if that knowledge is explicit. A familiarity with what is known about writing, and about teaching writing, can therefore help us to reflect on our assumptions and enable us to approach current teaching methods with an informed and critical eye.

This chapter provides an overview of how different conceptions of writing and learning influence teaching practices in L2 classrooms. For clarity I will present these conceptions under different headings, but it would be wrong to understand them as core dichotomies. The approaches discussed represent available options which can be translated into classroom practices in many different ways and combinations. Together they offer a picture of current L2 writing instruction.

Reflection 1.1

Spend a few minutes to reflect on your own experiences as a writing teacher. (a) What are the most important things you want students to learn from your classes? (b) What kinds of activities do you use? (c) Do you think an understanding of different ideas about writing and teaching could help you to become a better teacher? (d) Why?

Guiding concepts in L2 writing teaching

A number of theories supporting teachers' efforts to understand L2 writing and learning have developed since EFL/ESL writing first emerged as a distinctive area of scholarship in the 1980s. In most cases each has been enthusiastically taken up, translated into appropriate methodologies, and put to work in classrooms. Yet each also has typically been seen as another piece in the jigsaw, an additional perspective to illuminate what learners need to learn and what teachers need to provide for effective writing instruction. So, while often treated as historically evolving movements (e.g., Raimes, 1991), it would be wrong to see each theory growing out of and replacing the last. They are more accurately seen as complementary and overlapping perspectives, representing potentially compatible means of understanding the complex reality of writing. It is helpful therefore to understand these theories as curriculum options, each organizing L2 writing teaching around a different focus:

- language structures
- · text functions
- themes or topics
- creative expression
- composing processes
- content
- · genre and contexts of writing

Few teachers adopt and strictly follow just one of these orientations in their classrooms. Instead, they tend to adopt an eclectic range of methods that represent several perspectives, accommodating their practices to the constraints of their teaching situations and their beliefs about how students learn to write. But although the "pure" application of a particular theory is quite rare, it is common for one to predominate in how teachers conceptualize their work and organize what they do in their classrooms (Cumming, 2003).

Teachers therefore tend to recognize and draw on a number of approaches but typically show a preference for one of them. So, even though they rarely constitute distinct classroom approaches, it is helpful to examine each conception separately to discover more clearly what each tells us about writing and how it can support our teaching.

Reflection 1.2

Which of the curriculum orientations previously listed are you most familiar with? Can you identify one that best fits your own experience of teaching or learning to write in a second language? Might some orientations be more appropriate for some teaching-learning situations than others?

Focus on language structures

One way to look at writing is to see it as marks on a page or a screen, a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences, structured according to a system of rules. Conceptualizing L2 writing in this way directs attention to writing as a product and encourages a focus on formal text units or grammatical features of texts. In this view, learning to write in a foreign or second language mainly involves linguistic knowledge and the vocabulary choices, syntactic patterns, and cohesive devices that comprise the essential building blocks of texts.

This orientation was born from the marriage of structural linguistics and the behaviorist learning theories of second language teaching that were dominant in the 1960s (Silva, 1990). Essentially, writing is seen as a product constructed from the writer's command of grammatical and lexical knowledge, and writing development is considered to be the result of imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher. For many who adopt this view, writing is regarded as an extension of grammar – a means of reinforcing language patterns through habit formation and testing learners' ability to produce well-formed sentences. For others, writing is an intricate structure that can only be learned by developing the ability to manipulate lexis and grammar.

An emphasis on language structure as a basis for writing teaching is typically a four-stage process:

1. **Familiarization**: Learners are taught certain grammar and vocabulary, usually through a text.

Table 1.1: A substitution table

There are	Υ	types kinds classes categories	of X	: A, B, and C. . These are A, B, and C. are A, B, and C.
х	Consists of Can be divided into classes	Y	categories classes kinds types	. These are A, B, and C. : A, B, and C.
A, B, and C are	kinds types categories	of X.		

Source: Hamp-Lyons and Heasley, 1987: 23

- 2. *Controlled writing*: Learners manipulate fixed patterns, often from substitution tables.
- 3. Guided writing: Learners imitate model texts.
- 4. *Free writing*: Learners use the patterns they have developed to write an essay, letter, and so forth.

Texts are often regarded as a series of appropriate grammatical structures, and so instruction may employ "slot and filler" frameworks in which sentences with different meanings can be generated by varying the words in the slots. Writing is rigidly controlled through guided compositions where learners are given short texts and asked to fill in gaps, complete sentences, transform tenses or personal pronouns, and complete other exercises that focus students on achieving accuracy and avoiding errors. A common application of this is the substitution table (Table 1.1) which provides models for students and allows them to generate risk-free sentences.

The structural orientation thus emphasizes writing as combinations of lexical and syntactic forms and good writing as the demonstration of knowledge of these forms and of the rules used to create texts. Accuracy and clear exposition are considered the main criteria of good writing, while the actual communicative content, the *meaning*, is left to be dealt with later. Teaching writing predominantly involves developing learners' skills in producing fixed patterns, and responding to writing means identifying and correcting problems in the student's control of the language system. Many of these techniques are widely used today in writing classes at lower levels of language proficiency for building vocabulary, scaffolding writing development, and increasing the confidence of novice writers.

Reflection 1.3

Consider your own writing teaching practices or your experiences of writing as a student. Do they include elements of approaches that emphasize language structures? Can such approaches be effective in developing writing? In what situations might they be a useful response to student needs?

Although many L2 students learn to write in this way, a structural orientation can create serious problems. One drawback is that formal patterns are often presented as short fragments which tend to be based on the intuitions of materials writers rather than the analyses of real texts. This not only hinders students from developing their writing beyond a few sentences, but can also mislead or confuse them when they have to write in other situations. Nor is it easy to see how a focus restricted to grammar can lead to better writing. Research has tried to measure students' writing improvement through their increased use of formal features such as relative clauses or the "syntactic complexity" of their texts (e.g., Hunt, 1983). Syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy, however, are not the only features of writing improvement and may not even be the best measures of good writing. Most teachers are familiar with students who can construct accurate sentences and yet are unable to produce appropriate written texts, while fewer errors in an essay may simply reveal a reluctance to take risks, rather than indicate progress.

More seriously, the goal of writing instruction can never be just training in explicitness and accuracy because written texts are always a response to a particular communicative setting. No feature can be a universal marker of good writing because good writing is always contextually variable. Writers always draw on their knowledge of their readers and similar texts to decide both what to say and how to say it, aware that different forms express different relationships and meanings. Conversely, readers always draw on their linguistic and contextual assumptions to recover these meanings from texts, and this is confirmed in the large literature on knowledge-based inferencing in reading comprehension (e.g., Barnett, 1989).

For these reasons, few L2 writing teachers now see writing *only* as surface forms. But it is equally unhelpful to see language as irrelevant to learning to write. Control over surface features is crucial, and students need an understanding of how words, sentences, and larger discourse structures can shape and express the meanings they want to convey. Most teachers therefore include formal elements in their courses, but they also look beyond language

structures to ensure that students don't just know how to write grammatically correct texts, but also how to apply this knowledge for particular purposes and contexts.

Reflection 1.4

Can you imagine any circumstances when you might focus on language structures in a writing class? Are there ways you might be able to adapt this focus to help students express their meanings?

Focus on text functions

While L2 students obviously need an understanding of appropriate grammar and vocabulary when learning to write in English, writing is obviously not *only* these things. If language structures are to be part of a writing course, then we need principled reasons for choosing which patterns to teach and how they can be used effectively. An important principle here is to relate structures to meanings, making language *use* a criteria for teaching materials. This introduces the idea that particular language *forms* perform certain communicative *functions* and that students can be taught the functions most relevant to their needs. Functions are the *means* for achieving the *ends* (or purposes) of writing. This orientation is sometimes labeled "current-traditional rhetoric" or simply a "functional approach" and is influential where L2 students are being prepared for academic writing at college or university.

One aim of this focus is to help students develop effective paragraphs through the creation of topic sentences, supporting sentences, and transitions, and to develop different types of paragraphs. Students are guided to produce connected sentences according to prescribed formulas and tasks which tend to focus on form to positively reinforce model writing patterns. As with sentence-level activities, composing tasks often include so-called free writing methods, which largely involve learners reordering sentences in scrambled paragraphs, selecting appropriate sentences to complete gapped paragraphs and write paragraphs from provided information.

Clearly, this orientation is heavily influenced by the structural model described above, as paragraphs are seen almost as syntactic units like sentences, in which writers can fit particular functional units into given slots. From this it is a short step to apply the same principles to entire essays. Texts can then be seen as composed of structural entities such as

Unit 1 Unit 2	Structure and cohesion Description: Process and procedure	
Unit 3	Description: Physical	
Unit 4	Narrative	
Unit 5	Definitions	
Unit 6	Exemplification	
Unit 7	Classification	
Unit 8	Comparison and contrast	
Unit 9	Cause and effect	
Unit 10	Generalization, qualification, and certainty	
Unit 11	Interpretation of data	
Unit 12	Discussion	
Unit 13	Drawing conclusions	
Unit 14	Reports: studies and research	
Unit 15	Surveys and questionnaires	

Figure 1.1: A contents page from a functionally oriented textbook.

Introduction-Body-Conclusion, and particular organizational patterns such as narration, description, and exposition are described and taught. Typically, courses are organized according to common functions of written English, such as the example from a popular academic writing textbook shown in Figure 1.1.

Each unit typically contains comprehension checks on a model text. These are followed by exercises that draw attention to the language used to express the target function and that develop students' abilities to use them in their writing. Such tasks include developing an outline into an essay, or imitating the patterns of a parallel text in their own essay. Again, these offer good scaffolding for writing by supporting L2 learners' development. An example is shown in Figure 1.2.

While meaning is involved in these tasks and instructional strategies, they are essentially concerned with disembodied patterns rather than writing activities that have any meaning or purpose for students. An exclusive focus on form or function means that writing is detached from the practical purposes and personal experiences of the writer. Methods such as guided compositions are based on the assumption that texts are objects that can be taught independently of particular contexts, writers, or readers, and that by following certain rules, writers can fully represent their intended meanings. Writing, however, is more than a matter of arranging elements in the best order, and writing instruction is more than assisting learners to remember and execute these patterns. An awareness of this has led teachers to make efforts to introduce the writer into their models of writing and writing teaching,

There are basically two main ways to organise a cause and effect essay: "block" organization and "chain" organization. In *block organization*, you first discuss all of the causes as a block (in one, two, three or more paragraphs, depending on the number of causes). Then you discuss all of the effects together as a block. In *chain organization*, you discuss a first cause and its effect, a second cause and its effect, a third cause and its effect. Usually, each new cause is the result of the preceding effect. Discussion of each new cause and its effect begins with a new paragraph. All the paragraphs are linked in a "chain."

BLOCK	CHAIN
Introduction	Introduction
First cause	First cause
Second cause	Effect
Transition paragraph	Second Cause
First effect	Effect
Second effect	Third Cause
Third effect	Effect
Conclusion	Conclusion

Source: Adapted from Oshima and Hogue, 1999: 130-1.

Figure 1.2: A paragraph organization description.

and it is to orientations that highlight writers to which we turn in the next section.

Reflection 1.5

What arguments would persuade you to adopt a Functional orientation to your teaching?

Focus on creative expression

The third teaching orientation takes the writer, rather than form, as the point of departure. Following L1 composition theorists such as Elbow (1998) and Murray (1985), many writing teachers from liberal arts backgrounds see their classroom goals as fostering L2 students' expressive abilities, encouraging them to find their own voices to produce writing that is fresh and spontaneous. These classrooms are organized around students' personal experiences and opinions, and writing is considered a creative act of self-discovery. This can help generate self-awareness of the writer's social position and literate possibilities (Friere, 1974) as well as facilitate "clear thinking, effective relating, and satisfying self-expression" (Moffett,

1982: 235). A writing teacher in Japan characterized his approach like this:

I try to challenge the students to be creative in expressing themselves. Students learn to express their feelings and opinions so that others can understand what they think and like to do. I've heard that prospective employers sometimes ask students what they have learned at university, and that some students have showed them their poems. [quoted in Cumming, 2003]

Reflection 1.6

Can you recall an experience when you wrote a creative text, perhaps a poem or short story? Do you feel that this was helpful in developing your skills as a writer more generally? In what ways?

From this perspective, writing is learned, not taught, so writing instruction is nondirective and personal. Writing is a way of sharing personal meanings and writing courses emphasize the power of the individual to construct his or her own views on a topic. Teachers see their role as simply to provide students with the space to make their own meanings within a positive and cooperative environment. Because writing is a developmental process, they try to avoid imposing their views, offering models, or suggesting responses to topics beforehand. Instead, they seek to stimulate the writer's ideas through prewriting tasks, such as journal writing and parallel texts. Because writing is an act of discovering meaning, a willingness to engage with students' assertions is crucial, and response is a central means to initiate and guide ideas (e.g., Straub, 2000). This orientation further urges teachers to respond to the ideas that learners produce, rather than dwell on formal errors (Murray, 1985). Students have considerable opportunities for writing and exercises may attend to features such as style, wordiness, clichés, active versus passive voice, and so on. In contrast to the rigid practice of a more form-oriented approach, writers are urged to be creative and to take chances through free writing.

Figure 1.3 shows typical writing rubrics in this approach. Both rubrics ask students to read personal writing extracts, respond to them as readers, and then to use them as a stimulus to write about their own experiences.

Expressivism is an important approach as it encourages writers to explore their beliefs, engage with the ideas of others, and connect with readers. Yet it leans heavily on an asocial view of the writer, and its ideology of individualism may disadvantage second language students from cultures that place a different value on self-expression (see Chapter 2). In addition,

In his article, Green tells us that Bob Love was saved because "some kind and caring people" helped him to get speech therapy. Is there any example of "kind and caring people" you have witnessed in your life or in the lives of those around you? Tell who these people are and exactly what they did that showed their kindness.

Violet's aunt died for her country even though she never wore a uniform or fired a bullet. Write about what values or people you would sacrifice your life for if you were pushed to do so.

Figure 1.3: Essay topics from an expressivist textbook.

it is difficult to extract from the approach any clear principles from which to teach and evaluate "good writing." It simply assumes that all writers have a similar innate creative potential and can learn to express themselves through writing if their originality and spontaneity are allowed to flourish. Writing is seen as springing from self-discovery guided by writing on topics of potential interest to writers and, as a result, the approach is likely to be most successful in the hands of teachers who themselves write creatively. Murray's (1985) *A writer teaches writing*, for instance, provides a good account of expressivist methods, but also suggests the importance of the teacher's own personal insights in the process.

So despite its influence in L1 writing classrooms, expressivism has been treated cautiously in L2 contexts. Although many L2 students have learned successfully through this approach, others may experience difficulties, as it tends to neglect the cultural backgrounds of learners, the social consequences of writing, and the purposes of communication in the real world, where writing matters.

Focus on the writing process

Like the expressive orientation, the process approach to writing teaching emphasizes the writer as an independent producer of texts, but it goes further to address the issue of what teachers should do to help learners perform a writing task. The numerous incarnations of this perspective are consistent in recognizing basic cognitive processes as central to writing activity and in stressing the need to develop students' abilities to plan, define a rhetorical problem, and propose and evaluate solutions.

Reflection 1.7

What cognitive skills might be involved in the writing process? What methods may help students to develop their abilities to carry out a writing task?

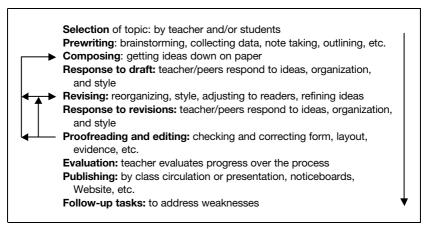


Figure 1.4: A process model of writing instruction.

Probably the model of writing processes most widely accepted by L2 writing teachers is the original planning-writing-reviewing framework established by Flower and Hayes (Flower, 1989; Flower and Hayes, 1981). This sees writing as a "non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983: 165). As Figure 1.4 shows, planning, drafting, revising, and editing do not occur in a neat linear sequence, but are recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous, and all work can be reviewed, evaluated, and revised, even before any text has been produced at all. At any point the writer can jump backward or forward to any of these activities: returning to the library for more data, revising the plan to accommodate new ideas, or rewriting for readability after peer feedback.

Reflection 1.8

Consider the last longish piece of writing that you did. It may have been an assignment for a course, a report, or a piece of personal writing. Can you identify the stages you went through to get the text to "publishable" or public standard? Was the process similar to that sketched in Figure 1.4?

This basic model of writing has been elaborated to further describe what goes on at each stage of the process and to integrate cognitive with social factors more centrally (Flower, 1994). Building on this work, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) have argued that we need at least two process models to account for the differences in processing complexity of skilled and novice writers. They label these as knowledge-telling and knowledge-transforming models. The first addresses the fact that novice writers plan less than experts, revise less often and less extensively, have limited goals, and are mainly concerned with generating content. The latter shows how skilled writers use the writing task to analyze problems, reflect on the task, and set goals to actively rework thoughts to change both their text and ideas. For writing teachers the model helps explain the difficulties their L2 students sometimes experience because of task complexity and lack of topic knowledge. Its emphasis on reflective thought also stresses the need for students to participate in a variety of cognitively challenging writing tasks to develop their skills and the importance of feedback and revision in the process of transforming both content and expression.

A significant number of writing teachers adopt a process orientation as the main focus of their courses and the approach has had a major impact on writing research and teaching in North America. The teacher's role is to guide students through the writing process, avoiding an emphasis on form to help them develop strategies for generating, drafting, and refining ideas. This is achieved through setting pre-writing activities to generate ideas about content and structure, encouraging brainstorming and outlining, requiring multiple drafts, giving extensive feedback, seeking text level revisions, facilitating peer responses, and delaying surface corrections until the final editing (Raimes, 1992). The teaching strategies developed to facilitate process goals have extended to most teaching contexts and there are few who have not employed teacher-student conferences, problem-based assignments, journal writing, group discussions, or portfolio assessments in their classes.

A priority of teachers in this orientation therefore is to develop their students' metacognitive awareness of their processes, that is, their ability to reflect on the strategies they use to write. In addition to composing and revising strategies, such an orientation places great emphasis on responses to writing. A response is potentially one of the most influential texts in a process writing class, and the point at which the teacher's intervention is most obvious and perhaps most crucial. Not only does this individual attention play an important part in motivating learners, it is also the point at which overt correction and explicit language teaching are most likely to occur. Response is crucial in assisting learners to move through the stages of the writing process and various means of providing feedback are used, including teacher-student conferences, peer response, audiotaped feedback, and reformulation (see Chapter 7). Nevertheless, the effectiveness of error correction and grammar teaching in assisting learners to improve their writing remains controversial in this model (Ferris, 1997; Truscott, 1996).

Reflection 1.9

How might you persuade a process adherent of the potential advantages of providing students with grammatical and text information about the texts they are asked to write? Are you persuaded by these reasons? At what stages and in what ways might grammar best be introduced?

Despite considerable research into writing processes, however, we still do not have a comprehensive idea of how learners go about a writing task or how they learn to write. It is clear that cognition is a central element of the process, and researchers are now more aware of the complexity of planning and editing activities, the influence of task, and the value of examining what writers actually do when they write. But although these understandings can contribute to the ways we teach, process models are hampered by small-scale, often contradictory studies and the difficulties of getting inside writers' heads to report unconscious processing. They are currently unable to tell us why writers make certain choices or how they actually make the cognitive transition to a knowledge-transforming model, nor do they spell out what occurs in the intervening stages or whether the process is the same for all learners. While Berieter and Scardalamaia's idea of multiple processing models opens the door to a clearer understanding of the writing process, no complete model exists yet that allows us to predict the relative difficulty for students of particular writing tasks or topics or their likely progress given certain kinds of instruction (Grabbe, 2003).

It also remains unclear whether an exclusive emphasis on psychological factors in writing will provide the whole picture, either theoretically or pedagogically. Forces outside the individual that help guide the writer to define problems, frame solutions, and shape the text also need to be considered (Bizzell, 1992; Faigley, 1986). As I argued at the beginning of this chapter, each orientation illuminates just one aspect of writing; the process of writing is a rich amalgam of elements of which cognition is only one. Process approaches overemphasize "the cognitive relationship between the writer and the writer's internal world" (Swales, 1990: 220) and as a result they fail to offer any clear perspective on the social nature of writing or on the role of language and text structure in effective written communication. Encouraging students to make their own meanings and find their own text forms does not provide them with clear guidelines on how to construct the different kinds of texts they have to write.

14 Writing and teaching writing

I have devoted a great deal of attention to process teaching methods and the theories that underpin them as these represent the dominant approach in L2 writing teaching today. Once again, however, it is necessary to look beyond a single approach. Process theories alone cannot help us to confidently advise students on their writing, and this is perhaps one reason why there is little evidence to show that process methods alone lead to significantly better writing. Quite simply, equipping novice writers with the strategies of good writers does not necessarily lead to improvement (Polio, 2001). Students not only need help in learning how to write, but also in understanding how texts are shaped by topic, audience, purpose, and cultural norms (Hyland, 2002).

Reflection 1.10

How do you think the "social factors" that influence writing might be incorporated into a process orientation? Think of a writing task that might achieve this.

Focus on content

A fifth way of conceptualizing EFL/ESL writing teaching is in reference to substantive content: what students are required to write *about*. Typically this involves a set of themes or topics of interest that establish a coherence and purpose for the course or that set out the sequence of key areas of subject matter that students will address (see Mohan, 1986). Students will have some personal knowledge of these themes and will be able to write meaningfully about them. This is a popular organizing principle for L2 writing courses and textbooks for students of all ages and abilities, and many teachers base their courses on topics students select themselves. In most cases such courses rarely focus exclusively on content and, in fact, represent interesting ways teachers can integrate and combine different conceptualizations of writing.

Reflection 1.11

Think of a set of topics or themes that might provide the basis of a writing course for a group of L2 students you are familiar with. What writing tasks and research issues do these topics suggest? What functions might students find useful to complete these writing activities?

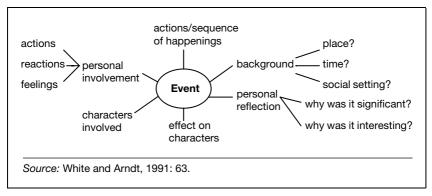


Figure 1.5: A spidergram for brainstorming a writing task.

Themes and topics frequently form the basis of process courses, where writing activities are often organized around social issues such as pollution, relationships, stress, juvenile crime, smoking, and so on. L2 students may be disadvantaged in such classrooms as they do not typically have a strong familiarity with either the topics or the types of texts they have to write. But these integrated writing activities may be useful to new migrants or students in academic preparation programs and can be important in encouraging learners to think about issues in new ways. Teachers may need to help learners acquire the appropriate cognitive schema (pl. schemata) or knowledge of topics and vocabulary they will need to create an effective text. Schema development exercises usually include reading for ideas in parallel texts, reacting to photographs, and various brainstorming tasks to generate ideas for writing and organizing texts. Figure 1.5 shows a spidergram or mind map used to stimulate ideas for an account of a personal experience. This kind of activity is useful for building a list of issues, and also for identifying relationships between them and prioritizing what it will be important to write about.

Clearly content-oriented courses can be tailored to students at different proficiency levels by varying the amount of information provided. At lower levels, much of the content can be supplied to reduce students' difficulties in generating and organizing material, while at more advanced levels students are often required to collaborate in collecting and sharing information as a basis for composing. Students may be asked to conduct research of some kind, either in the library, on the Internet, or through the use of interviews and questionnaires, so teachers may find themselves providing assistance with data collection techniques. Group work is frequently a key element of these classes and cooperation among students in